

Executive Summary

Central to any study of climate change is the development of an emissions inventory that identifies and quantifies a country's primary anthropogenic¹ sources and sinks of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. This inventory adheres to both (1) a comprehensive and detailed methodology for estimating sources and sinks of anthropogenic greenhouse gases, and (2) a common and consistent mechanism that enables signatory countries to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) to compare the relative contribution of different emission sources and greenhouse gases to climate change. Moreover, systematically and consistently estimating national and international emissions is a prerequisite for evaluating the cost-effectiveness and feasibility of mitigation strategies and emission reduction technologies.

This chapter summarizes the latest information on U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emission trends from 1990 through 1997. To ensure that the U.S. emissions inventory is comparable to those of other UNFCCC signatory countries, the estimates presented here were calculated using methodologies consistent with those recommended in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). For most source categories, the IPCC default methodologies were expanded, resulting in a more comprehensive and detailed estimate of emissions.

Naturally occurring greenhouse gases include water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and ozone (O₃). Several classes of halogenated substances that contain fluorine, chlorine, or bromine are also greenhouse gases, but they are, for the most part, solely a product of industrial activities. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) are halocarbons that contain chlorine, while halocarbons that contain bromine are referred to as halons. Other fluorine containing halogenated substances include hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆).

There are also several gases that do not have a direct global warming effect but indirectly affect terrestrial radiation absorption by influencing the formation and destruction of tropospheric and stratospheric ozone. These gases—referred to as ozone precursors—include carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), and nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs).² Aerosols—extremely small particles or liquid droplets often produced by emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO₂)—can also affect the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere.

Although CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O occur naturally in the atmosphere, their atmospheric concentrations have been affected by human activities. Since pre-industrial time (i.e., since about 1750), concentrations of these greenhouse gases have increased by 28, 145, and 13 percent, respectively (IPCC 1996). This build-up has altered the composition of the earth's atmosphere, and may affect the global climate system.

¹ The term “anthropogenic”, in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

² Also referred to in the U.S. Clean Air Act as “criteria pollutants.”

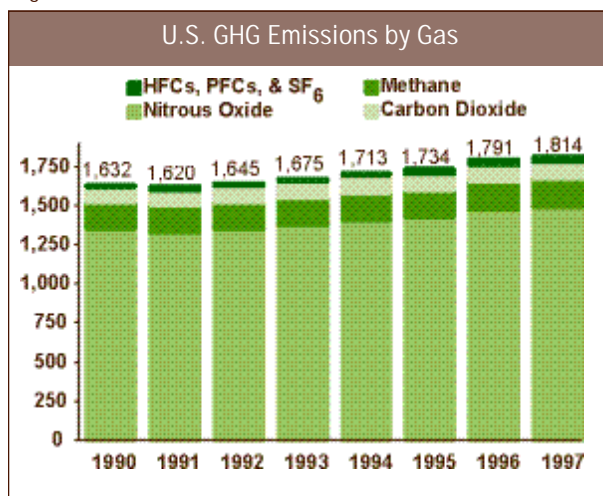
Beginning in the 1950s, the use of CFCs and other stratospheric ozone depleting substances (ODS) increased by nearly 10 percent per year until the mid-1980s, when international concern about ozone depletion led to the signing of the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. Since then, the consumption of ODS has been undergoing a phase-out. In contrast, use of ODS substitutes such as HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ has grown significantly during this time.

Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions rose in 1997 to 1,813.6 million metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE)³ (11.1 percent above 1990 baseline levels). The single year increase in emissions from 1996 to 1997 was 1.3 percent (23.1 MMTCE), down from the previous year's increase of 3.3 percent. Figure ES-1 through Figure ES-3 illustrate the overall trends in total U.S. emissions by gas, annual changes, and absolute change since 1990. Table ES-1 provides a detailed summary of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and sinks for 1990 through 1997.

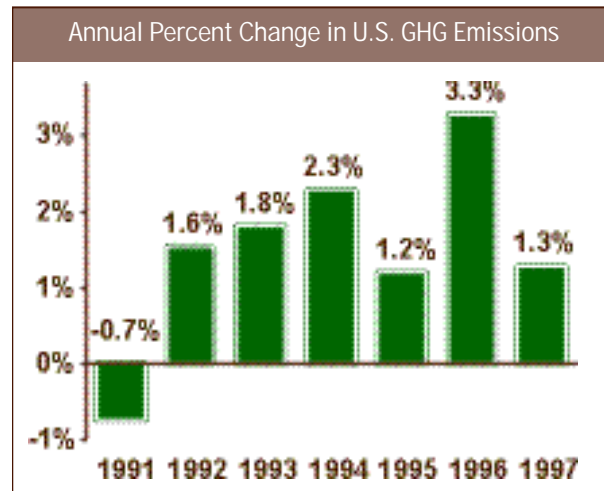
Figure ES-4 illustrates the relative contribution of the direct greenhouse gases to total U.S. emissions in 1997. The primary greenhouse gas emitted by human activities was CO₂. The largest source of CO₂ and of overall greenhouse gas emissions in the United States was

Figure ES-1



³ Estimates are presented in units of millions of metric tons of carbon equivalents (MMTCE), which weights each gas by its GWP value, or Global Warming Potential (see following section).

Figure ES-2



fossil fuel combustion. Methane emissions resulted primarily from decomposition of wastes in landfills, manure and enteric fermentation associated with domestic livestock, natural gas systems, and coal mining. Emissions of N₂O were dominated by agricultural soil management and mobile source fossil fuel combustion. The substitution of ozone depleting substances and emissions of HFC-23 during the production of HCFC-22 were the primary contributors to aggregate HFC emissions. PFC emissions came mainly from primary aluminum production, while electrical transmission and distribution systems emitted the majority of SF₆.

As the largest source of U.S. GHG emissions, CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion accounted for 81 percent of emissions in 1997 when each gas is weighted by its Glo-

Figure ES-3

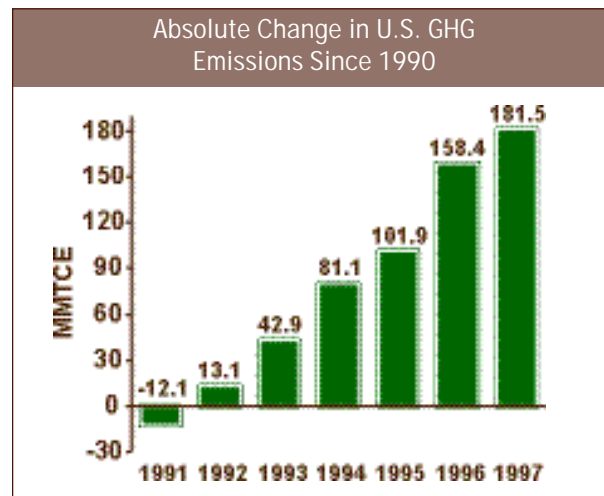
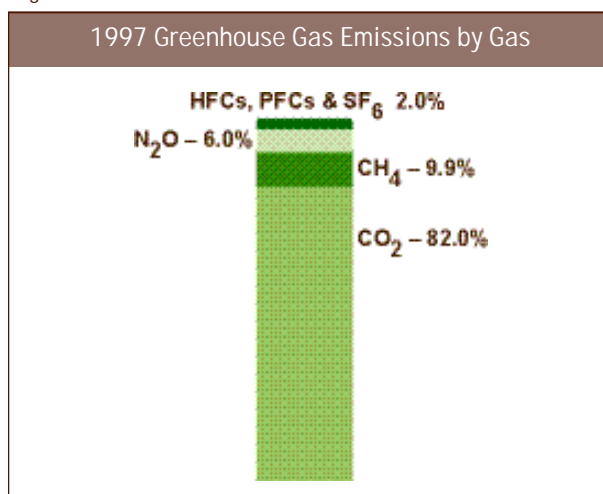


Figure ES-4



bal Warming Potential.⁴ Emissions from this source grew by 11 percent (138.8 MMTCE) from 1990 to 1997 and were responsible for over three-quarters of the increase in national emissions during this period. The annual increase in CO₂ emissions from this source was 1.3 percent in 1997, down from the previous year when emissions increased by 3.6 percent.

The dramatic increase in fossil fuel combustion-related CO₂ emissions in 1996 was primarily a function of two factors: 1) fuel switching by electric utilities from natural gas to more carbon intensive coal as gas prices rose sharply due to weather conditions, which drove up residential consumption of natural gas for heating; and 2) higher petroleum consumption for transportation. In 1997, by comparison, electric utility natural gas consumption rose to regain much of the previous year's decline as the supply available rose due to lower residential consumption. Despite this increase in natural gas consumption by utilities and relatively stagnant U.S. electricity consumption, coal consumption rose in 1997 to offset the temporary shut-down of several nuclear power plants. Petroleum consumption for transportation activities in 1997 also grew by less than one percent, compared to over three percent the previous year (see Table ES-2). The annual increase in CO₂ emissions from petroleum in 1997 is based on motor gasoline sales data from the U.S. Energy Information Administration; it is expected to be revised upward with the publication of future energy statistics.

⁴ See section below entitled Global Warming Potential.

Overall, from 1990 to 1997, total emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O increased by 143.5 (11 percent), 9.7 (6 percent), and 13.4 MMTCE (14 percent), respectively. During the same period, weighted emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ rose by 14.9 MMTCE (67 percent). Despite being emitted in smaller quantities relative to the other principle greenhouse gases, emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are significant because of their extremely high Global Warming Potentials and, in the cases of PFCs and SF₆, long atmospheric lifetimes. Conversely, U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were partly offset by carbon sequestration in forests, which was estimated to be 11 percent of total emissions in 1997.

Other significant trends in emissions from additional source categories over the eight year period from 1990 through 1997 included the following:

- Aggregate HFC and PFC emissions resulting from the substitution of ozone depleting substances (e.g., CFCs) increased dramatically (by 14.4 MMTCE). This increase was partly offset, however, by reductions in PFC emissions from aluminum production (41 percent) and HFC emissions from HCFC-22 production (14 percent), both as a result of voluntary industry emission reduction efforts and, in the former case, from falling domestic aluminum production.
- Combined N₂O and CH₄ emissions from mobile source fossil fuel combustion rose by 3.9 MMTCE (26 percent), primarily due to increased rates of N₂O generation in highway vehicles.

Table ES-2: Annual Percent Change in CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion for Selected Sectors and Fuels

Sector	Fuel Type	1995 to 1996	1996 to 1997
Electric Utility	Coal	5.7%	2.9%
Electric Utility	Natural Gas	-14.6%	8.7%
Residential	Natural Gas	8.1%	-4.4%
Transportation*	Petroleum	3.4%	0.3%

* Excludes emissions from International Bunker Fuels.

- Methane emissions from the decomposition of waste in municipal and industrial landfills rose by 10.5 MMTCE (19 percent) as the amount of organic matter in landfills steadily accumulated.
- Emissions from coal mining dropped by 5.2 MMTCE (21 percent) as the use of methane from degasification systems increased significantly.
- Nitrous oxide emissions from agricultural soil management increased by 8.8 MMTCE (13 percent) as fertilizer consumption and cultivation of nitrogen fixing crops rose.
- An additional domestic adipic acid plant installed emission control systems in 1997; this was estimated to have resulted in a 1.4 MMTCE (27 percent) decline in emissions from 1996 to 1997 despite an increase in production.

The following sections describe the concept of Global Warming Potentials (GWPs), present the anthropogenic sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions in the United States, briefly discuss emission pathways, summarize the emission estimates, and explain the relative importance of emissions from each source category.

Box ES-1: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions-Related Data

There are several ways to assess a nation's greenhouse gas emitting intensity. These measures of intensity could be based on aggregate energy consumption because energy-related activities are the largest sources of emissions, on fossil fuel consumption only because almost all energy-related emissions involve the combustion of fossil fuels, on electricity consumption because electric utilities were the largest sources of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 1997, on total gross domestic product as a measure of national economic activity, or on a per capita basis. Depending upon which of these measures was used, the United States could appear to have reduced or increased its national greenhouse gas intensity. Table ES-3 provides data on various statistics related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions normalized to 1990 as a baseline year. Greenhouse gas emissions in the U.S. have grown at an average annual rate of 1.5 percent since 1990. This rate is slightly slower than that for total energy or fossil fuel consumption—thereby indicating an improved or lower greenhouse gas emitting intensity—and much slower than that for either electricity consumption or overall gross domestic product. Emissions, however, are growing faster than national population, thereby indicating a worsening or higher greenhouse gas emitting intensity on a per capita basis (see Figure ES-5). Overall, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations—a function of many complex anthropogenic and natural processes—are increasing at 0.4 percent per year.

Table ES-3: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Data (Index 1990 = 100)

Variable	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	Growth Rate ^g
GHG Emissions ^a	100	99	101	103	105	106	110	111	1.5%
Energy Consumption ^b	100	100	101	104	106	108	112	112	1.6%
Fossil Fuel Consumption ^c	100	99	101	104	106	107	110	112	1.6%
Electricity Consumption ^c	100	102	102	105	108	111	114	115	2.0%
GDP ^d	100	99	102	104	108	110	114	118	2.5%
Population ^e	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	1.0%
Atmospheric CO ₂ Concentration ^f	100	100	101	101	101	102	102	103	0.4%

^a GWP weighted values

^b Energy content weighted values. Source: DOE/EIA

^c Source: DOE/EIA

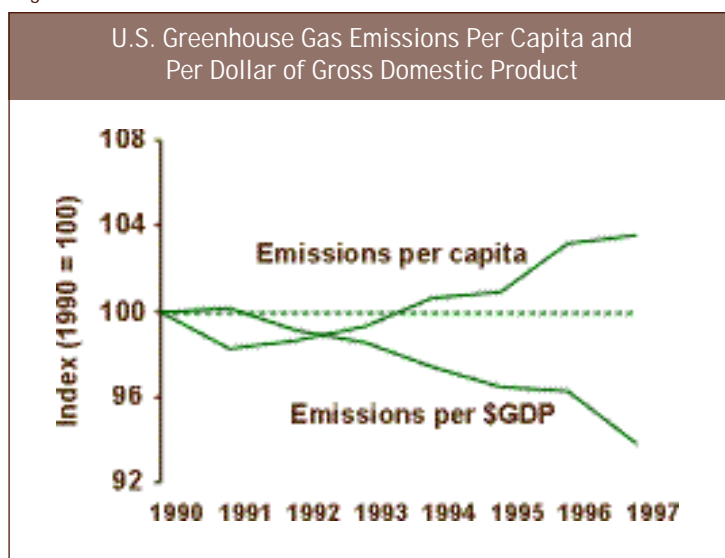
^d Gross Domestic Product in chained 1992 dollars (BEA 1998)

^e (U.S. Census Bureau 1998)

^f Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii (Keeling and Whorf 1998)

^g Average annual growth rate

Figure ES-5



Box ES-2: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Transportation Activities

Motor vehicle usage is increasing all over the world, including in the United States. Since the 1970s, the number of highway vehicles registered in the United States has increased faster than the overall population, according to the Federal Highway Administration. Likewise, the number of miles driven—up 18 percent from 1990 to 1997—and gallons of gasoline consumed each year in the United States have increased relatively steadily since the 1980s, according to the Energy Information Administration. These increases in motor vehicle usage are the result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, increasing urban sprawl, and low fuel prices.

One of the unintended consequences of these changes is a slowing of progress toward cleaner air in both urban and rural parts of the country. Passenger cars, trucks, motorcycles, and buses emit significant quantities of air pollutants with local, regional, and global effects. Motor vehicles are major sources of carbon monoxide (CO), carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs). Motor vehicles are also important contributors to many serious air pollution problems, including ground-level ozone or smog, acid rain, fine particulate matter, and global warming. Within the United States and abroad, government agencies have taken strong actions to reduce these emissions. Since the 1970s, the EPA has reduced lead in gasoline, developed strict emission standards for new passenger cars and trucks, directed states to enact comprehensive motor vehicle emission control programs, required inspection and maintenance programs, and more recently, introduced the use of reformulated gasoline to mitigate the air pollution impacts from motor vehicles. New vehicles are now equipped with advanced emissions controls, which are designed to reduce emissions of nitrogen oxides, hydrocarbons, and carbon monoxide.

This report reflects new data on the role that automotive catalytic converters play in emissions of N₂O, a powerful greenhouse gas. The EPA's Office of Mobile Sources has conducted a series of tests in order to measure the magnitude of N₂O emissions from gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty trucks equipped with catalytic converters. Results show that N₂O emissions are lower than the IPCC default factors, and the United States has shared this data with the IPCC. In this report, new emission factors developed from these measurements and from previously published literature were used to calculate emissions from mobile sources in the United States (see Annex C).

Table ES-4 summarizes greenhouse gas emissions from all transportation-related activities. Overall, transportation activities—excluding international bunker fuels—accounted for an almost constant 26 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions from 1990 to 1997. These emissions were primarily CO₂ from fuel combustion, which increased by 10 percent from 1990 to 1997. However, because of larger increases in N₂O and HFC emissions during this period, overall emissions from transportation activities actually increased by 12 percent.

Table ES-6: Global Warming Potentials
(100 Year Time Horizon)

Gas	GWP
Carbon dioxide (CO ₂)	1
Methane (CH ₄)*	21
Nitrous oxide (N ₂ O)	310
HFC-23	11,700
HFC-125	2,800
HFC-134a	1,300
HFC-143a	3,800
HFC-152a	140
HFC-227ea	2,900
HFC-236fa	6,300
HFC-4310mee	1,300
CF ₄	6,500
C ₂ F ₆	9,200
C ₄ F ₁₀	7,000
C ₆ F ₁₄	7,400
SF ₆	23,900

Source: (IPCC 1996)

* The methane GWP includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

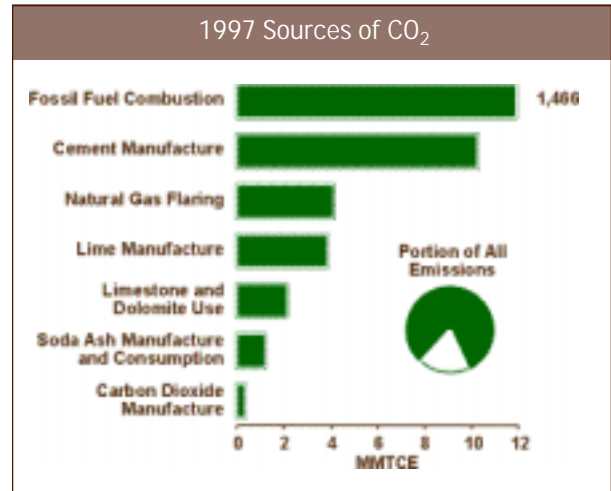
Carbon Dioxide Emissions

The global carbon cycle is made up of large carbon flows and reservoirs. Hundreds of billions of tons of carbon in the form of CO₂ are absorbed by oceans and living biomass (sinks) and are emitted to the atmosphere annually through natural processes (sources). When in equilibrium, carbon fluxes among these various reservoirs are roughly balanced.

Since the Industrial Revolution, this equilibrium of atmospheric carbon has been altered. Atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ have risen about 28 percent (IPCC 1996), principally because of fossil fuel combustion, which accounted for almost 99 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions in 1997. Changes in land-use and forestry practices can also emit CO₂ (e.g., through conversion of forest land to agricultural or urban use) or can act as a sink for CO₂ (e.g., through net additions to forest biomass).

Figure ES-6 and Table ES-7 summarize U.S. sources and sinks of CO₂, while the remainder of this section discusses CO₂ emission trends in greater detail.

Figure ES-6



Energy

Energy-related activities accounted for almost all U.S. CO₂ emissions for the period of 1990 through 1997. Carbon dioxide from fossil fuel combustion was the main contributor, although CH₄ and N₂O were also emitted. In 1997, approximately 85 percent of the energy consumed in the United States was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels. The remaining 15 percent came from renewable or other energy sources such as hydropower, biomass, and nuclear energy (see Figure ES-7 and Figure ES-8). Energy-related activities other than fuel combustion, such as those associated with the production, transmission, storage, and distribution of fossil fuels, also emit GHGs (primarily CH₄). A discussion of specific trends related to CO₂ emissions from energy consumption is presented below.

Fossil Fuel Combustion

As fossil fuels are combusted, the carbon stored in them is almost entirely emitted as CO₂. The amount of carbon in fuels per unit of energy content varies significantly by fuel type. For example, coal contains the highest amount of carbon per unit of energy, while petroleum has about 25 percent less carbon than coal, and natural gas has about 45 percent less. From 1990 through 1997, petroleum supplied the largest share of U.S. energy demands, accounting for an average of 39 percent

Residential and Commercial End-Use Sectors. The residential and commercial sectors accounted for 19 and 16 percent, respectively, of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel consumption in 1997. Both sectors relied heavily on electricity for meeting energy needs, with 64 and 73 percent, respectively, of their emissions attributable to electricity consumption for lighting, heating, cooling, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were largely due to the consumption of natural gas and petroleum, primarily for meeting heating and cooking needs.

Electric Utilities. The United States relies on electricity to meet a significant portion of its energy demands, especially for lighting, electric motors, heating, and air conditioning. Electric utilities are responsible for consuming 28 percent of overall U.S. energy and emitted 36 percent of CO₂ from fossil fuel consumption in 1997. The type of fuel combusted by utilities has a significant effect on their emissions. For example, some electricity is generated with low CO₂ emitting energy technologies, particularly non-fossil options such as nuclear, hydroelectric, or geothermal energy. However, electric utilities rely on coal for over half of their total energy requirements and accounted for 88 percent of all coal consumed in the United States in 1997. Consequently, changes in electricity demand have a significant impact on coal consumption and associated CO₂ emissions.

Natural Gas Flaring

Carbon dioxide is produced when methane from oil wells is flared (i.e., combusted) to relieve rising pressure or to dispose of small quantities of gas that are not commercially marketable. In 1997, flaring activities emitted approximately 4.2 MMTCE, or about 0.3 percent of U.S. CO₂ emissions.

Biomass Combustion

Biomass—in the form of fuel wood and wood waste—is used primarily by the industrial end-use sector, while the transportation end-use sector is the predominant use of biomass-based fuels, such as ethanol from corn and woody crops. Ethanol and ethanol blends, such as gasohol, are typically used to fuel public transport vehicles.

Although these fuels do emit CO₂, in the long run the CO₂ emitted from biofuel consumption does not increase atmospheric CO₂ concentrations if the biogenic carbon emitted is offset by the growth of new biomass. For example, fuel wood burned one year but re-grown the next only recycles carbon, rather than creating a net increase in total atmospheric carbon. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs in wooded or crop lands are accounted for under Land-Use Change and Forestry.

Gross CO₂ emissions from biomass combustion were 59.1 MMTCE, with the industrial sector accounting for 79 percent of the emissions, and the residential sector, 18 percent. Ethanol consumption by the transportation sector accounted for only 3 percent of CO₂ emissions from biomass combustion.

Industrial Processes

Emissions are often produced as a by-product of various non-energy-related activities. For example, industrial processes can chemically transform raw materials. This transformation often releases greenhouse gases such as CO₂. The production processes that emit CO₂ include cement manufacture, lime manufacture, limestone and dolomite use (e.g., in iron and steel making), soda ash manufacture and consumption, and CO₂ consumption. Total CO₂ emissions from these sources were approximately 17.8 MMTCE in 1997, accounting for about 1 percent of total CO₂ emissions. Since 1990, emissions from each of these sources increased, except for emissions from soda ash manufacture and consumption, which remained relatively constant.

Cement Manufacture (10.2 MMTCE)

Carbon dioxide is produced primarily during the production of clinker, an intermediate product from which finished Portland and masonry cement are made. Specifically, CO₂ is created when calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is heated in a cement kiln to form lime and CO₂. This lime combines with other materials to produce clinker, while the CO₂ is released into the atmosphere.

Lime Manufacture (3.9 MMTCE)

Lime is used in steel making, construction, pulp and paper manufacturing, and water and sewage treatment. It is manufactured by heating limestone (mostly calcium carbonate, CaCO_3) in a kiln, creating calcium oxide (quicklime) and CO_2 , which is normally emitted to the atmosphere.

Limestone and Dolomite Use (2.1 MMTCE)

Limestone (CaCO_3) and dolomite ($\text{CaCO}_3\text{MgCO}_3$) are basic raw materials used by a wide variety of industries, including the construction, agriculture, chemical, and metallurgical industries. For example, limestone can be used as a purifier in refining metals. In the case of iron ore, limestone heated in a blast furnace reacts with impurities in the iron ore and fuels, generating CO_2 as a by-product. Limestone is also used in flue gas desulfurization systems to remove sulfur dioxide from the exhaust gases.

Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption (1.2 MMTCE)

Commercial soda ash (sodium carbonate, Na_2CO_3) is used in many consumer products, such as glass, soap and detergents, paper, textiles, and food. During the manufacturing of soda ash, some natural sources of sodium carbonate are heated and transformed into a crude soda ash, in which CO_2 is generated as a by-product. In addition, CO_2 is often released when the soda ash is consumed.

Carbon Dioxide Consumption (0.3 MMTCE)

Carbon dioxide is used directly in many segments of the economy, including food processing, beverage manufacturing, chemical processing, and a host of industrial and other miscellaneous applications. For the most part, the CO_2 used in these applications is eventually released to the atmosphere.

Land-Use Change and Forestry

When humans alter the biosphere through changes in land-use and forest management practices, they alter the natural carbon flux between biomass, soils, and the atmosphere. In the United States, improved forest management practices and the regeneration of previously cleared forest areas have resulted in a net uptake (sequestration) of carbon in U.S. forest lands, which cover about 298 million

hectares (737 million acres) (Powell et al. 1993). This uptake is an ongoing result of land-use changes in previous decades. For example, because of improved agricultural productivity and the widespread use of tractors, the rate of clearing forest land for crop cultivation and pasture slowed greatly in the late 19th century, and by 1920 this practice had all but ceased. As farming expanded in the Midwest and West, large areas of previously cultivated land in the East were brought out of crop production, primarily between 1920 and 1950, and were allowed to revert to forest land or were actively reforested.

Since the early 1950s, the managed growth of private forest land in the East has nearly doubled the biomass density there. The 1970s and 1980s saw a resurgence of federally sponsored tree-planting programs (e.g., the Forestry Incentive Program) and soil conservation programs (e.g., the Conservation Reserve Program), which have focused on reforesting previously harvested lands, improving timber-management, combating soil erosion, and converting marginal cropland to forests.

In 1997, the CO_2 flux from land-use change and forestry activities was estimated to have been a net uptake of 208.6 MMTCE. This carbon was sequestered in trees, understory, litter, and soils in forests, U.S. wood product pools, and wood in landfills. This net carbon uptake represents an offset of about 14 percent of the CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 1997. The amount of carbon sequestered through U.S. forestry and land-use practices is estimated to have declined by about a third between 1990 and 1997 largely due to the maturation of existing U.S. forests and the slowed expansion of Eastern forest cover.

Methane Emissions

Atmospheric methane (CH_4) is an integral component of the greenhouse effect, second only to CO_2 as a contributor to anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions. Methane's overall contribution to global warming is significant because it is estimated to be 21 times more effective at trapping heat in the atmosphere than CO_2 (i.e., the GWP value of methane is 21). Over the last two centuries, methane's concentration in the atmosphere has more than doubled (IPCC 1996). Scientists believe these

is estimated that by the year 2000, this regulation will have reduced landfill methane emissions by more than 50 percent. Furthermore, the EPA is currently reviewing site-specific information on landfill gas recovery and anticipates that this new information will lead to a higher estimate of the national recovery total, and thus, lower net methane emissions. This new information will be available in future inventories.

Natural Gas and Petroleum Systems

Methane is the major component of natural gas. During the production, processing, transmission, and distribution of natural gas, fugitive emissions of methane often occur. Because natural gas is often found in conjunction with petroleum deposits, leakage from petroleum systems is also a source of emissions. Emissions vary greatly from facility to facility and are largely a function of operation and maintenance procedures and equipment conditions. In 1997, emissions from U.S. natural gas systems were estimated to be 33.5 MMTCE, accounting for approximately 19 percent of U.S. methane emissions.

Methane emissions from the components of petroleum systems—including crude oil production, crude oil refining, transportation, and distribution—generally occur as a result of system leaks, disruptions, and routine maintenance. In 1997, emissions from petroleum systems were estimated to be 1.6 MMTCE, or 1 percent of U.S. methane emissions. EPA is reviewing new information on methane emissions from petroleum systems and anticipates that future emission estimates will be higher for this source.

From 1990 to 1997, combined methane emissions from natural gas and petroleum systems increased by about 2 percent as the number of gas producing wells and miles of distribution pipeline rose.

Coal Mining

Produced millions of years ago during the formation of coal, methane trapped within coal seams and surrounding rock strata is released when the coal is mined. The quantity of methane released to the atmosphere during coal mining operations depends primarily upon the depth and type of the coal that is mined.

Methane from surface mines is emitted directly to the atmosphere as the rock strata overlying the coal seam are removed. Because methane in underground mines is explosive at concentrations of 5 to 15 percent in air, most active underground mines are required to vent this methane, typically to the atmosphere. At some mines, methane-recovery systems may supplement these ventilation systems. U.S. recovery of methane has been increasing in recent years. During 1997, coal mining activities emitted 18.8 MMTCE of methane, or 10 percent of U.S. methane emissions. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source decreased by 22 percent due to increased use of the methane collected by mine degasification systems.

Agriculture

Agriculture accounted for 30 percent of U.S. methane emissions in 1997, with enteric fermentation in domestic livestock and manure management accounting for the majority. Other agricultural activities contributing directly to methane emissions included rice cultivation and agricultural waste burning.

Enteric Fermentation (34.1 MMTCE)

During animal digestion, methane is produced through the process of enteric fermentation, in which microbes residing in animal digestive systems break down the feed consumed by the animal. Ruminants, which include cattle, buffalo, sheep, and goats, have the highest methane emissions among all animal types because they have a rumen, or large fore-stomach, in which methane-producing fermentation occurs. Non-ruminant domestic animals, such as pigs and horses, have much lower methane emissions. In 1997, enteric fermentation was the source of about 19 percent of U.S. methane emissions, and more than half of the methane emissions from agriculture. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source increased by 5 percent due mainly to increased livestock populations.

Manure Management (17.0 MMTCE)

The decomposition of organic animal waste in an anaerobic environment produces methane. The most important factor affecting the amount of methane produced is how the manure is managed, because certain types of storage and treatment systems promote an oxy-

gen-free environment. In particular, liquid systems tend to encourage anaerobic conditions and produce significant quantities of methane, whereas solid waste management approaches produce little or no methane. Higher temperatures and moist climatic conditions also promote methane production.

Emissions from manure management were about 9 percent of U.S. methane emissions in 1997, and about a third of the methane emissions from agriculture. From 1990 to 1997, emissions from this source increased by 14 percent because of larger farm animal populations and expanded use of liquid manure management systems.

Rice Cultivation (2.7 MMTCE)

Most of the world's rice, and all of the rice in the United States, is grown on flooded fields. When fields are flooded, anaerobic conditions develop and the organic matter in the soil decomposes, releasing methane to the atmosphere, primarily through the rice plants. In 1997, rice cultivation was the source of slightly over 1 percent of total U.S. methane emissions, and about 5 percent of U.S. methane emissions from agriculture. Emissions estimates from this source did not change significantly from 1990 levels.

Agricultural Residue Burning (0.2 MMTCE)

Burning crop residue releases a number of greenhouse gases, including methane. Agricultural residue burning is considered to be a net source of methane emissions because, unlike CO₂, methane released during burning is not reabsorbed by crop regrowth during the next growing season. Because field burning is not common in the United States, it was responsible for only 0.1 percent of U.S. methane emissions in 1997.

Other Sources

Methane is also produced from several other sources in the United States, including fossil fuel combustion, wastewater treatment, and some industrial processes. Fossil fuel combustion by stationary and mobile sources was responsible for methane emissions of 2.2 and 1.4 MMTCE, respectively in 1997. The majority of emissions from stationary sources resulted from the combustion of wood in the residential and industrial sectors. The combustion of gasoline in highway vehicles was re-

sponsible for the majority of the methane emitted from mobile sources. Wastewater treatment was a smaller source of methane, emitting 0.9 MMTCE in 1996. Methane emissions from two industrial sources—petrochemical and silicon carbide production—were also estimated, totaling 0.4 MMTCE.

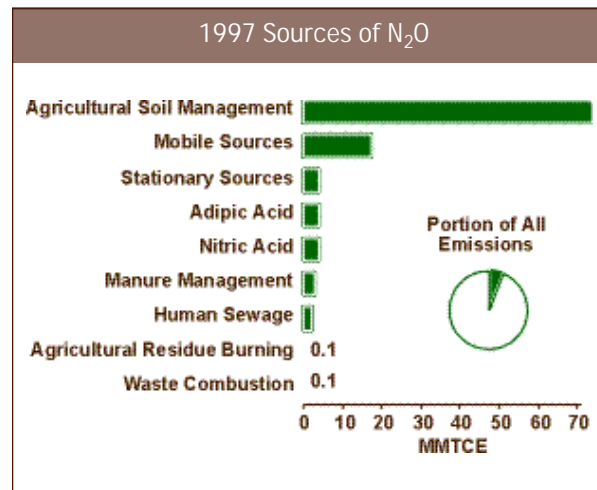
Nitrous Oxide Emissions

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is a greenhouse gas that is produced both naturally, from a wide variety of biological sources in soil and water, and anthropogenically by a variety of agricultural, energy-related, industrial, and waste management activities. While N₂O emissions are much lower than CO₂ emissions, N₂O is approximately 310 times more powerful than CO₂ at trapping heat in the atmosphere (IPCC 1996). During the past two centuries, atmospheric concentrations of N₂O have risen by approximately 13 percent. The main anthropogenic activities producing N₂O in the United States were fossil fuel combustion in motor vehicles, agricultural soil management, and adipic and nitric acid production (see Figure ES-12 and Table ES-10).

Agricultural Soil Management

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is produced naturally in soils through microbial processes of nitrification and denitrification. A number of anthropogenic activities add to the amount of nitrogen available to be emitted as N₂O by these microbial processes. Direct additions of nitrogen occur through the application of synthetic and organic

Figure ES-12



Manure Management

Nitrous oxide is produced as part of microbial nitrification and denitrification processes in managed and unmanaged manure, the latter of which is addressed under agricultural soil management. Total N₂O emissions from managed manure systems in 1997 were 3.0 MMTCE, accounting for 3 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. Emissions increased by 15 percent from 1990 to 1997.

Other Sources

Other sources of N₂O included agricultural residue burning, waste combustion, and human sewage in wastewater treatment systems. In 1997, agricultural residue burning and municipal solid waste combustion each emitted approximately 0.1 MMTCE of N₂O. Although N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment were not fully estimated because of insufficient data availability, the human sewage component of domestic wastewater resulted in emissions of 2.3 MMTCE in 1997.

HFCs, PFCs and SF₆ Emissions

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs) are categories of synthetic chemicals that have been introduced as alternatives to the ozone depleting substances (ODSs), which are being phased out under the *Montreal Protocol* and Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990. Because HFCs and PFCs do not directly deplete the stratospheric ozone layer, they are not controlled by the *Montreal Protocol*.

These compounds, however, along with sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆), are potent greenhouse gases. In addition to having high global warming potentials, SF₆ and many HFCs and PFCs have extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, resulting in their essentially irreversible accumulation in the atmosphere. Sulfur hexafluoride, itself, is the most potent greenhouse gas the IPCC has evaluated.

In addition to their use as substitutes for ozone depleting substances, the other industrial sources of these gases are aluminum production, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacturing, electrical transmission and distribution, and magnesium production and processing. Figure ES-13 and Table ES-11 present emission estimates for HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆, which totaled 37.1 MMTCE in 1997.

Figure ES-13

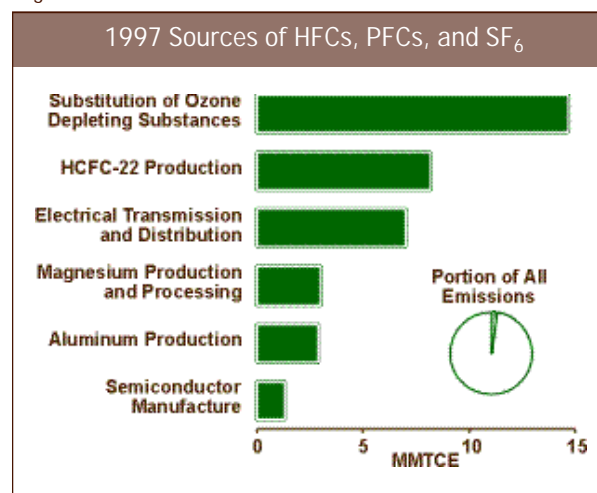


Table ES-11: Emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ (MMTCE)

Source	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.4	4.0	9.5	11.9	14.7
HCFC-22 Production	9.5	8.4	9.5	8.7	8.6	7.4	8.5	8.2
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Magnesium Production and Processing	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0
Aluminum Production	4.9	4.7	4.1	3.5	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.9
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.3
Total	22.2	21.6	23.0	23.4	25.9	30.8	34.7	37.1

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances

The use and subsequent emissions of HFCs and PFCs as ODS substitutes increased dramatically from small amounts in 1990 to 14.7 MMTCE in 1997. This increase was the result of efforts to phase-out CFCs and other ODSs in the United States, especially the introduction of HFC-134a as a CFC substitute in refrigeration applications. This trend is expected to continue for many years, and will accelerate in the early part of the next century as HCFCs, which are interim substitutes in many applications, are themselves phased-out under the provisions of the Copenhagen Amendments to the *Montreal Protocol*.

Other Industrial Sources

HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are also emitted from a number of other industrial processes. During the production of primary aluminum, two PFCs (CF₄ and C₂F₆) are emitted as intermittent by-products of the smelting process. Emissions from aluminum production were estimated to have decreased by 41 percent between 1990 and 1997 due to voluntary emission reductions efforts by the industry and falling domestic aluminum production.

HFC-23 is a by-product emitted during the production of HCFC-22. Emissions from this source were 8.2 MMTCE in 1997, and have decreased by 14 percent since 1990 due mainly to voluntary efforts by industry.

The semiconductor industry uses combinations of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ for plasma etching and chemical vapor deposition processes. For 1997, it was estimated that the U.S. semiconductor industry emitted a total of 1.3 MMTCE. These gases were not widely used in the industry in 1990.

The primary use of SF₆ is as a dielectric in electrical transmission and distribution systems. Fugitive emissions of SF₆ occur from leaks in and servicing of substations and circuit breakers, especially from older equipment. Estimated emissions from this source increased by 25 percent from 1990, to 7.0 MMTCE in 1997.

Lastly, SF₆ is also used as a protective covergas for the casting of molten magnesium. Estimated emissions from primary magnesium production and magnesium casting were 3.0 MMTCE in 1997, an increase of 76 percent since 1990.

Criteria Pollutant Emissions

In the United States, carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂) are commonly referred to as “criteria pollutants,” as termed in the Clean Air Act. Carbon monoxide is produced when carbon-containing fuels are combusted incompletely. Nitrogen oxides (i.e., NO and NO₂) are created by lightning, fires, fossil fuel combustion, and in the stratosphere from nitrous oxide. NMVOCs—which include such compounds as propane, butane, and ethane—are emitted primarily from transportation, industrial processes, and non-industrial consumption of organic solvents. In the United States, SO₂ is primarily emitted from the combustion of fossil fuels and by the metals industry.

In part because of their contribution to the formation of urban smog (and acid rain in the case of SO₂), criteria pollutants are regulated under the Clean Air Act. These gases also indirectly affect the global climate by reacting with other chemical compounds in the atmosphere to form compounds that are greenhouse gases. Unlike other criteria pollutants, SO₂ emitted into the atmosphere is believed to affect the Earth’s radiative budget negatively; therefore, it is discussed separately.

The most important of the indirect climate change effects of criteria pollutants is their role as precursors of tropospheric ozone. In this role, they contribute to ozone formation and alter the atmospheric lifetimes of other greenhouse gases. For example, CO interacts with the hydroxyl radical—the major atmospheric sink for methane emissions—to form CO₂. Therefore, increased atmospheric concentrations of CO limit the number of hydroxyl molecules (OH) available to destroy methane.

⁵ NO_x and CO emission estimates from agricultural burning were estimated separately, and therefore not taken from EPA (1998).

Box ES-5: Sources and Effects of Sulfur Dioxide

Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emitted into the atmosphere through natural and anthropogenic processes affects the Earth's radiative budget through its photochemical transformation into sulfate aerosols that can (1) scatter sunlight back to space, thereby reducing the radiation reaching the Earth's surface; (2) affect cloud formation; and (3) affect atmospheric chemical composition (e.g., stratospheric ozone, by providing surfaces for heterogeneous chemical reactions). The overall effect of SO₂ derived aerosols on radiative forcing is believed to be negative (IPCC 1996). However, because SO₂ is short-lived and unevenly distributed in the atmosphere, its radiative forcing impacts are highly uncertain.

Sulfur dioxide is also a major contributor to the formation of urban smog, which can cause significant increases in acute and chronic respiratory diseases. Once SO₂ is emitted, it is chemically transformed in the atmosphere and returns to the Earth as the primary source of acid rain. Because of these harmful effects, the United States has regulated SO₂ emissions in the Clean Air Act. Electric utilities are the largest source of SO₂ emissions in the United States, accounting for 64 percent in 1997. Coal combustion contributes nearly all of those emissions (approximately 96 percent). Sulfur dioxide emissions have significantly decreased in recent years, primarily as a result of electric utilities switching from high sulfur to low sulfur coal.